DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 221 890 CS 503 956

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TITLE Actors, Observers, and the Attribution of Intent in Conversation.
PUB DATE May 82
NOTE 26p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Communication Association (Boston, MA, May 2-5, 1982).

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS College Students; Communication Problems; *Communication Research; Higher Education; *Information Seeking; Interpersonal Communication; *Mutual Intelligibility; *Observation; *Participant Characteristics; *Verbal Communication
IDENTIFIERS *Conversation

ABSTRACT

A study examined the manner in which conversants and observers of conversants attribute intent to messages in ongoing information-seeking conversations. College students were used to evolve and test three scenarios, in which evasion was more or less likely, and a system of classifying intention in information seeking conversations. Fifty-four subjects from the same pool were given instructions and videotaped in 27 conversations, 9 in each of the 3 scenarios. The 27 pairs of subjects then coded their own conversations as actors and 1 conversation from each of the other 2 scenarios as observers. Results indicated that (1) a direct relationship exists between the certainty coders had about the likely use of evasion and the agreement between paired coders' attributions of intention in conversation; (2) widely disparate conclusions often exist between actors and observers regardless of initial expectations; and (3) actors' and observers' ability to agree among themselves improves with conversational length but is inversely related to their initial certainty for the conversations. One implication of these findings is that conversational involvement appears to be a crucial factor influencing attributions in equivocal conversational situations. (JL)

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ACTORS, OBSERVERS, AND THE ATTRIBUTION OF INTENT IN CONVERSATION

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Paper presented at the annual conference of the International Communication Association, Boston, 1982.

Actors, Observers, and the Attribution of Intent in Conversation

The relationship of cognitive processing to the production and interpretation of discourse is of growing interest to communication scholars. Proponents of cognitive approaches are concerned with the mediating influence of cognitive processes upon the interpretation and subsequent production of discourse, and upon the ability of individuals to share knowledge and coordinate social activity. Recent reviews by Craig (1978) and Seibold (1981) indicate convergence of inquiry in artificial intelligence, social cognition, language, memory, and inference processes that characterize current interests in the linkages among the assignment of meaning to discourse, inference-making, and discourse production. These linkages are amenable to study from a perspective of attribution.

Attribution theory concerns the manner in which individuals assign significance to the events and objects they experience. Attribution research findings suggest how meaning may be attributed to messages, and how various factors--among them expectation, focus of attention, selectively available information, involvement with the activity--may influence what sense is attributed to the messages. This paper reports research concerned with the influence of conversational expectation and involvement upon the attributions of meaning made by conversants and by observers of those conversants. It further examines those assignments of meaning for correspondence across the two perspectives of actors and observers.

Heider (1958) views the attribution process as spanning the phenomenal world of the individual to the outside world. Direct communicative interaction is one means of linking the outside world, which Heider argues is only indirectly accessible to the individual, with the world of the individual.

Through the attribution process, the world becomes understandable, predictable, and often controllable, sometimes by identifying causes and sometimes by identifying the intentions with which others act.

Throughout his work, Heider (1944, 1958, 1976; Heider and Simmel, 1944) cites intention as a key variable in attribution processes. He calls it "the central factor in personal causality. . . . it is the intention of a person that brings order into the wide variety of action sequences" (1958, p. 112). Intention is given crucial placement in the attribution process (Jones and Davis, 1965). We attribute intentions prior to attributing dispositional characteristics to people. Further, attributing intention is often a goal of the attribution process in its own right.

The present research focuses upon the attribution of intention as it occurs in information-seeking conversations. Faced with a potentially uncertain encounter, attributing intention becomes a prominent objective of the interaction. In addition to discerning the manifest sense of the discourse, the issue of what a conversant is trying to accomplish by the discourse takes on significance. For example, the information source may not be certain of the wisdom of complying with a request for information. The information seeker may be uncertain of how the source weighs the factors involved in a decision to comply.

For the information source, the questioner's messages constitute the salient information upon which attributions of intention are based. The source's messages constitute the salient information for the questioner, upon which intentions must also be attributed. Information-seeking conversations entail two interdependent individuals, both of whom must attribute intentions to each other's messages in order to determine what subsequent message will best serve their respective goals.

Each conversant must be concerned with the effects the other is trying to produce in order to reach his/her goal. Verbal "jockeying for position" may accompany equivocal encounters. As the series of interlocking messages grows, retroactive attribution is possible and uncertainty is reduced (Attneave, 1959; Berger, 1975; Berger and Calabrese, 1975; Clatterbuck, 1979).

It is unclear from the attribution literature whether this emergent information is equally available to actors and to observers of the actors (Monson and Snyder, 1977). Actors may have access to more information than observers; if this is the case, then actors should be better able than observers to reduce uncertainty and make more accurate attributions of each other's intentions. An alternative explanation is that actors and observers focus their attention differently; if this is the case, actors and observers may reach quite different conclusions about the intentions operating in the interaction.

Research indicates that the attribution process can be manipulated by changing attributors' focus of attention. Storms (1973) and Arkin and Duval (1975) found that actors' attributions become like those of observers when they view their behavior from the observer's perspective. The process, which uses videotaping to record action from the actor's perspective (subjective) and from the observer's perspective (objective), also produced a reversal in observers' attributions. Thus, by controlling focus of attention, by imposing the observer's perspective upon actors and observers alike when they make attributions of intention in ongoing conversation, we can determine whether the activity of participation provides information to actors which is not available to observers. Systematic differences in their attributions across various situated conversations would indicate this.

The present research examines these particular questions: In information-

seeking conversations, will the attributions of intentions made by conversants differ from those made by observers of those conversants, if the focus of attention used when making attributions is identical for conversants and observers? If there are differences, what are they? and How do the expectations attributors have for situated conversation influence the attributions they make?

Preliminary Procedures

Preliminary procedures concerned gathering and assessing typical information-seeking scenarios in which varying levels of risk and uncertainty existed for the information source. One common technique for dealing with uncertainty is to use evasion, defined conceptually for this study as discourse which serves to protect an individual through the strategic management of information at that individual's disposal.

College students were asked to identify situations that they felt were both typical among their peers and in which evasion was a feasible strategy for the information source. Seventeen distinct scenarios were identified. For each, normative power for the use of evasion was assessed using procedures developed by Jackson (1975). The scenarios distributed in approximately normal fashion. Three scenarios were selected for the study. These three were ranked most typical, and each was one standard deviation in normative power from the adjacent level. The scenarios, here written with Heider's terms (P = person; O = other), were labeled High, Moderate, and Low Normative Power (N.P.).

High N.P. Scenario

P is on a plane. O is seated next to P. They are strangers. O makes repeated attempts to engage P in conversation to find out about P's life, interests, relationships, goals, etc., and probes on any and all responses that P gives.

Moderate N.P. Scenario

P and O are majors in the same department. They know each other, but aren't really friends. P has heard that O has a reputation for "doing what's necessary to succeed." O is beginning a course that P had last year. They happen to meet, and O asks to borrow P's old exams, notes, and papers from the time P took the class.

Low N.P. Scenario

P and O have an intimate relationship and are at home together. They have been having problems. O has accused P of taking O for granted. P feels that O has begun to nag. P is watching TV and is absorbed in the show. O begins to talk to P, who responds, but keeps watching the TV with "one eye" and "one ear." O now accuses P of inattention, another case of taking O for granted, and demands that P recount what O has been saying.

The level of normative power in each situation concerns the degree of social approval for the use of evasion. Each level reflects a measurement of implicit common knowledge, and constitutes base rate information. Evasion is a possibility in all of these scenarios, though it need not be chosen by conversants in any one of them. As the propriety for its use decreases, conversants become less certain of its use. Uncertainty is inversely related to the normative power for evasion. The High N.P. scenario has the least uncertainty. The conversants have met by chance and will never meet again; the use of evasion would either concern P's willingness to converse or the "life story" P provides, if it appears to be given freely. The Moderate N.P. scenario is more uncertain; the conversants have a slight relationship, ethical issues are concerned, as are the practical consequences of loaning one's work. The Low N.P. scenario is most uncertain; while evasion is feasible, its uses could be diverse and it is not clear what consequences it would have upon

a close relationship.

A coding system was developed to identify the prevalent intentions in information-seeking conversations. Grounded in subjects' typical criteria for such conversations, it fit the general situation, was relevant to the issue of intention, and could be applied by subjects to the explanation of all conversations classified as information-seeking (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Subjects were asked to generate a list of the activities that occur in information-seeking conversations, drawing upon their own experiences and observations. From these data, two issues emerged. One concerned the use served by the particular message, regardless of the more general conversational task within which it was situated. The other concerned the more general conversational task being focused upon, the ostensive direction of the conversation. Pretesting revealed quick mastery of the system by the subjects in the preliminary phase of the study, and high test-retest reliability, $r = .93$. This reliability rating was particularly important since messages could be double coded if subjects, when coding, viewed a change in the ostensive conversational task from the one initiated by the information-seeker.

Four categories were identified for the use of the message.

> To Gain Compliance: an attempt, by way of question or comment (from a plea to a threat and judgmental or non-judgmental) to elicit information or behavioral compliance from another.
>
> To Cooperate/ To Advance: by way of comment or answer, providing fact or opinion that advances the conversation; conveying the spirit, if not the ability, to enlighten the other; freely giving information sought and/or volunteering information, <u>although</u> this may not be what the other would like to hear.
>
> To Appease/ To Put Off: by way of comment or answer, providing fact or opinion that does not fully satisfy the spirit of the request; a concession that does not fully reveal the information at one's disposal; a partial or vague answer or comment, based upon limited cooperation.

> To Mislead: by way of question, comment, or answer, to confuse or misdirect; to lead the other astray by raising irrelevant questions, by introducing irrelevant information and issues, or relevant information in an intentionally confusing manner, or by lying.

For the second issue, the conversational task, two categories identified alternate conversational tasks. These tasks were at variance with the information-seeking activity initiated by the information-seeker.

> Restructuring: by way of question, comment or answer, attempting to steer the focus of the discussion on the topic, or shift the focus from the topic entirely.
>
> Clarifying: by way of a question, comment or answer, addressing the meaning of a previous portion of the conversation.

If we presume that the information-seeker defines the direction of the conversation, Restructuring shifts the direction. Clarifying impedes the development of the conversation, whatever the direction.

Method

Three coding perspectives were used to determine whether attributing intentions in discourse is influenced by participation or by focus of attention. These were an Actor coding perspective, an Observer coding perspective, and a Mixed coding perspective. In the Actor perspective, paired subjects enacted conversations based in one of the three scenarios. Particularly due to the typicality of the scenarios for the subjects, role enactments were not expected to cause difficulty (Forward, Canter, and Kirsch, 1976). No participants reported any difficulty when asked. In the Observer perspective, paired subjects viewed one of the conversations. One pair of subjects from the Actor and Observer perspective coded each conversation. The paired conversants coded all messages in their own conversation for the intent in each message; paired observers coded that same conversation. In the Mixed perspective, the intentions attributed by the four coders associated with each conversation were compared on a message-

by-message basis for agreement. While an agreement score was calculated for inter-actor agreement and for inter-observer agreement for each conversation, actors and observers need not have concurred about the particular intentions being attributed.

Subjects

Fifty-four subjects, 21 male and 33 female, were recruited. They were drawn from the same pool relied upon for all preliminary procedures. T-tests comparing experimental subjects' assessment of normative power for evasion with the previous assessments indicated no differences (High N.P.: $\underline{t} = 1.17$, $p < .25$; Moderate N.P.: $\underline{t} = .34$, $p > .50$; Low N.P.: $\underline{t} = .58$, $p > .50$; d.f.=50 in all tests). Constraints upon the use of evasion were seen similarly by all subjects in the study. Subjects were randomly paired for conversing in a scenario with two exceptions; dyads in the Low N.P. scenario were male-female, and friends were not paired together.

Videotaping

Twenty-seven conversation, nine in each of the three scenarios, were taped. Except for one camera which recorded the conversants, video equipment was kept behind a room divider. Subjects sat in chairs slightly angled toward each other.

Two cameras and two Sony Betamax units were used to prepare the videotapes for coding. One camera taped subjects from the observer's perspective. Due to split screen capability, a second camera recorded the numerical progression of a Sony RM-300 Auto Search Control unit in the corner of the screen during each conversation. By noting the number corresponding to the break points between messages, pauses could be introduced into the flow of the conversation as it was re-recorded on the second videotape recorder. Subjects coded a videotape of two conversants seen from the observer's perspective; pauses

introduced between messages marked standardized units of conversation to be coded.

Procedures

Subjects were given performance instructions and a description of the scenario they were to enact. Descriptions were written from the perspective of the role they were to portray. Subjects were asked to try to avoid interrupting their partners; if they were interrupted, they could continue or yield as they wished. They could proceed with the conversation however they wished. They were told that the information-seeker was to begin the conversation. When asked after the videotaping, no subject reported any difficulty due to the recording of the conversation or the placement of the camera (see Weimann, 1981).

Following the taping, subjects provided information about the normative power for the scenario they enacted. They read coding instructions and listened to an audiotape explaining the use of the coding system. During this time the videotape was being re-recorded. Once the videotape was prepared, subjects coded their entire conversation, message-by-message, independently.

One week later, the same paired subjects returned to code from the Observer perspective. Each pair coded one conversation from one of the other two scenarios. Subjects watched the conversation once through prior to coding since actors knew the outcome of their conversations prior to coding, observers were given the same information, assuming that the only difference between the actors and observers was the actors' participation in the conversation. Coding was done independently. No subject reported any difficulty using the coding system either as an actor or as an observer.

Dependent Measures

The dependent measures were the completed coding forms, filled out by

each of the 54 subjects, one as an actor in one scenario, and once as an observer of a conversation in a different scenario. The lengths of the conversations ranged from 14 messages to 53 messages. Each message had intention attributed to it using the coding system described previously. Messages were double coded if subjects attributed an intended change in the conversational task (e.g., one can Appease by giving vague information, or one can Appease by asking for Clarification as a stalling technique).

Agreement scores for each pair of coders were calculated using Cohen's kappa (Reynolds, 1977; Tinsley and Weiss, 1975) on a message-by-message basis. Thus, 54 agreement scores were produced, nine per scenario X three scenarios X two natural coding perspectives. Agreement scores were recalculated for message-by-message agreement across the two perspectives for each of the 27 conversations to produce the agreement scores for the Mixed coding perspective. In this fashion, the influence of coders' uncertainty upon their agreement about attributed intentions could be assessed. Also, by mixing the two perspectives, the influence of active participation upon agreement could be assessed.

Results

The data were analyzed to assess differences by coding perspective and by scenario. The data revealed three findings. First, a direct relationship was found between the certainty coders had about the likely use of evasion and the agreement between paired coders' attributions of intention in conversation. Second, while levels of agreement in both the Actor and the Observer perspectives were similar, coders in these perspectives often reached widely divergent conclusions about which intentions were operating in the conversations they coded. And third, the ability of paired coders to improve their agreement scores--to converge in their attributions of intention--was inversely related

to their initial levels of certainty for the conversation.

Within Perspective Analyses

The data in each of the three coding perspectives were analyzed by one-way analyses of variance. Differences were located with orthogonal contrasts. The influence of normative power (i.e., initial certainty) upon coder agreement, regardless of coder perspective, is clearly demonstrated in Figure 1.

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Figure 1 about here

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Significant differences in paired coder agreement scores were found in the Actor coding perspective, $F(2,24) = 9.73$, $p < .001$.[1] Levels of agreement between pairs of conversants declined substantially from the High to the Moderate and Low N.P. scenarios, $t\ (26) = 4.40$, $p < .0005$, while no difference was found between the agreement scores in the Moderate and Low N.P. scenarios.

This pattern held true in the Observer coding perspective, $F(2,24) = 8.61$, $p < .005$. Significance was due to the decline from the High to the Moderate and Low N.P. scenarios, $t(26) = 3.99$, $p < .0005$.

When actors' and observers' assessments of the intentions in the same conversations were recalculated to form the Mixed coding perspective, the same pattern emerged, $F(2,24) = 21.71$, $p < .001$. Again the significance was due to the decline in agreement scores from the High to the Moderate and Low N.P. scenarios, $t(26) = 6.54$, $p < .0005$.

This pattern of findings indicates the influence of normative expectations upon the attribution of intentions in conversation. Agreement declined with declining certainty among attributors about the likelihood of the use of evasion.

Between Perspective Analyses

Since the within-perspective analyses indicated no difference between the Moderate and Low N.P. scenario scores for any of the three coding perspectives, the agreement scores were combined in each perspective to form the Moderate-Low level.

At the High N.P. level, actors' and observers' agreement scores were virtually identical, as the mean scores in Figure 1 indicate. These scores, however, were significantly higher than the scores of agreement in the Mixed coding perspective, $t(26) = 2.25$, $p < .025$. Even when the coders' expectations for evasion enabled confidence in attributions, actors and observers diverged in their attributions of the actors' intentions. Clearly, the difficulty of four coders making the same coding judgment exceeds that for two coders.

At the combined Moderate-Low N.P. level, both comparisons showed significance. Agreement levels between pairs of actors exceeded agreement between pairs of observers, $t(35) = 1.71$, $p < .05$, and both actors' and observers' agreement scores exceeded those in the Mixed perspective, $t(50) = 9.60$, $p < .0005$. While the latter of these findings is not surprising, the former finding suggest a point of speculation deserving future examination; though all agreement scores may decline as initial certainty for conversation declines, the activity of participation may provide certain information to actors enabling them to achieve a minimum level of agreement in their attributions regardless of the initial situational uncertainty.

Influences on Coding Ability

Several factors may have influenced the agreement scores achieved by pairs of coders. One potential problem was an order effect. Since all subjects coded first as actors and only later as observers, coding ability might improve with experience. The two agreement scores produced by each pair of coders,

once as actors and once as observers, yielded a correlation coefficient of $r = -.18$. This suggests no systematic and differential influence based upon order effect.

Table 1 about here

As Table 1 indicates, coding ability was systematically influenced by normative power, the initial certainty regarding evasion that coders had for each of the scenarios. Table 1 presents the means of the difference scores based upon the paired coder agreement scores from the Actor to the Observer perspective (i.e., a[illegible]ment score for each pair of coders as actors minus the agreement score produced as observers). The table indicates the six possible combinations of subjects' assignments to scenarios. In all three cells above the mean diagonal--where the certainty in the Actor condition exceeds that in the Observer condition--the mean difference scores were positive. In all three cells below the main diagonal--where the certainty in the Actor condition was less than that in the Observer condition--mean difference scores were negative. Certainty of initial expectations, not coding perspective, influenced the level of paired coder agreement.

The presumed predictability of the two roles in each scenario may have influenced agreement levels. In the High N.P. scenario, for example, the information-seeker may be less likely to stray from direct attempts to gain the compliance of the information source than in the Low N.P. scenario, where the seeker may be just as likely as the source to appease or mislead or shift the topic for control of the situation. Additionally, the gender of the coder may have been a factor influencing agreement levels. Role- and sex-related abilities to attribute intention accurately were assessed. A two-tailed, unweighted means analysis (Winer, 1962) produced no significant differences either by gender or by role in the scenarios.

The final factor examined for influence on levels of agreement was the

duration of the conversations. Coder agreement scores were correlated with the length of the conversations. A strong inverse relationship was found at the High N.P. level ($r = -.59$ for actors; $r = -.63$ for observers). No relationship was found at the Moderate N.P. level ($r = -.05$ for actors; $r = -.08$ for observers). A moderate positive relationship was found at the Low N.P. level ($r = .32$ for actors; $r = .20$ for observers). While the Ns for the correlations were too small to be valuable individually ($N = 9$ for each), a consistent trend among the individual correlation scores does suggest an important inverse relationship between expectation for conversation and the accuracy of attributions made during the conversation.

Discussion

Several inferences may be drawn from the results. Base rate information, identified as common knowledge of social constraints on communicative options, is a valuable source of information for actors and observers. However, it is not always a sufficient source of information for attributors to identify intent similarly. Other information may be required to reduce attributional uncertainty; that becomes available as the conversation develops and enables the proactive attribution process of which Berger (1975) speaks. The information, however, appears to differ in important ways for actors and observers, resulting in divergent and unrelated judgments of intentions in ongoing conversation. Conversational involvement appears to be a crucial factor influencing attributions in equivocal conversational situations.

Subjects relied upon their expectations for each of the scenarios to the extent possible. All subjects had access to this common knowledge--the range of options, the degree of sanctioning upon each option, the usefulness of this information to reduce uncertainty in attributions. In the High N.P. scenario, actors' and observers' agreement scores were high, with virtually

identical means ($\bar{X}$ = .74 for actors; $\bar{X}$ = .72 for observers). While the mean for the Mixed perspective was significantly lower, it still indicated substantial agreement ($\bar{X}$ = .53).

The different attributions between perspectives, as reflected in the Mixed perspective, raises a question of the practical significance of differences that may occur in the assignment of meaning to activity. Actors and observers may have similar overall understandings of the prevalent intentions while diverging in their interpretations of particular details. In a highly normative activity such as a wedding, all are likely to agree in their basic judgments of the activity; the active and concerned involvement of a few individuals may enable them to identify several small mishaps. The perceptual unit attributors use to define information and make inferences may contribute to the divergence between actors and observers. According to Newtson (1973, 1976), if attributors use different units of perception as they interpret ongoing behavior, the unit size will define for them different pieces of information. Relying upon differing pieces of information will lead to divergent attributions of the significance of that ongoing activity.

Attributors attend to parts of an activity which suggests to them those intentions they expect to be operating (Zadny and Gerard, 1974). This selectivity operates during perception, influencing where attributors' attention is focused. In the High N.P. scenario, all subjects had relatively certain and clear expectations, enabling them to achieve high levels of agreement, both within and across coder perspective. As the initial expectations became increasingly equivocal, paired coder agreement scores declined, indicating that attributors' expectations could not provide a firm basis for predicting what intentions would be operating in the discourse. Subjects had to turn to the discourse, itself, to seek out additional information to reduce their uncertainty.

A strong linear trend relating paired coder agreement scores to the length of the conversations was noted for both actors and observers across the three levels of normative power. As the normative power for evasion declined (and thus, expectations became less certain and less valuable for explaining and predicting), agreement scores improved with the length of the conversation. In the High N.P. scenario, agreement scores declined sharply with increasing length of conversations. Apparently, attributors approached the conversations presuming they could rely upon their expectations. Subjects' confident reliance on this information precluded their need to seek out any alternative bases of interpretation. As the conversations progressed, coders did not detect variation in intentions from those they clearly expected to be operating. Clatterbuck (1979) observes that "it is quite possible that an individual will be totally confident of his/her knowledge and will behave consistent with that belief when in fact the attribution process has been in error" (p. 148). When base rate information became less useful (as initial uncertainty rose), subjects apparently relied increasingly upon the conversation as a source of information for its own accurate interpretation. The positive change in the direction of relationship between agreement scores and conversation, across scenarios of declining normative power, suggests this strongly. This linear trend of inverse relationship produced Spearman's rho of $r_s = -.83$, $p < .05$.

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Figure 2 about here

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Langer (1978) proposes the term "mindfulness" to define the extent to which individuals carry out actions with conscious monitoring. To the extent one is "mindful," one's behavior is deliberate. To the extent one is

"mindless," one behaves and processes information automatically; for the attributor, perception of action and its comprehension seem concurrent. If individuals approach an interaction with high initial certainty, they interact in a relatively mindless fashion; conversants make attributions automatically (see Schneider and Shiffrin, 1977 and Shiffrin and Schneider, 1977, for a discussion of controlled and automatic information processing). If individuals approach an interaction with uncertainty, they become more mindful. Attribution becomes a more controlled process. Since attributors attempt to reduce their uncertainty by consciously monitoring for salient information, the questions of what information is available to monitor and what is deemed salient information become significant.

As uncertainty increased, actors and observers made attributions of intent that were both different and unrelated. The scores in the Mixed perspective, for the Moderate and Low N.P. scenarios, indicate that the actors' attributions concurred with those of the observers at levels no better than chance ($\overline{X} = .04$, Moderate N.P.; $\overline{X} = -.02$, Low N.P.). In terms of the degree of agreement for the paired coders, actors' scores surpassed observers' scores at a significant level. In terms of the basis for agreement, the qualitative similarities between actors and observers, at chance levels, indicate no systematic relationship between actors' judgments and those of observers. Although paired coder scores in the equivocal scenarios improved with conversation length, actors and observers disagreed about the significance of what they saw.

Thus, where initial equivocality is present, direct involvement in conversational activity weighs heavily upon the sense attributors assign to discourse. Since the study controlled for focus of attention when attributions were made, the variable of direct conversational involvement by actors suggests that participation provided salient information to them for reducing

uncertainty that was not available to observers.

As Berger (1975) states, "more studies are needed which investigate attributions resulting from observing the communication stream in an interaction from the perspective of the interactants themselves" (p. 49). Such studies, he states, should reveal the kinds of attributional biases that differentiate actors' and observers' definitions of the significance of ongoing communication. The purpose of this study has been to identify differences that bear upon the attribution of intent in information-seeking conversations and to explore the significance of those differences for assigning significance to such interactions.

Notes

1. All tests are one-tailed. Although the study is descriptive, some of the literature suggests that actors will achieve higher levels of agreement than will observers due to additional information at their disposal. Further, levels of agreement between paired coders are expected to reflect some influence of normative power levels upon attributional confidence, regardless of coding perspective.

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TABLE 1

Means of the Difference Scores for Paired Coders
(Scores as Actors minus Scores as Observers)

Scenario Coded From Actor Perspective	Scenario Coded From Observer Perspective: High N.P.	Moderate N.P.	Low N.P.
High N.P.	- - - -	+.282	+.329
Moderate N.P.	-.302	- - - -	+.217
Low N.P.	-.142	-.105	- - - -

Figure 1

Mean Scores Within Perspectives
Based On Dyadic Agreement of Communicative Intent

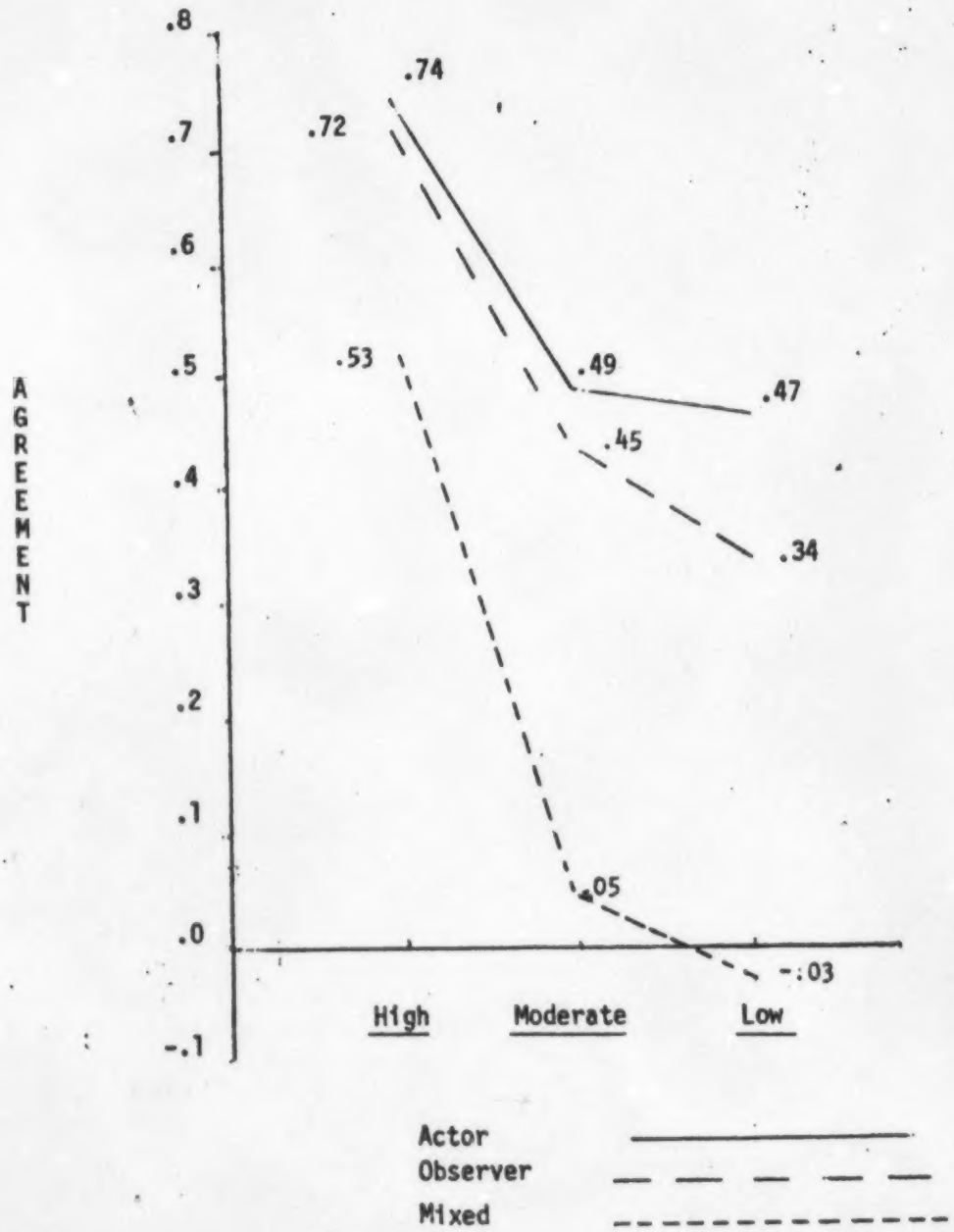
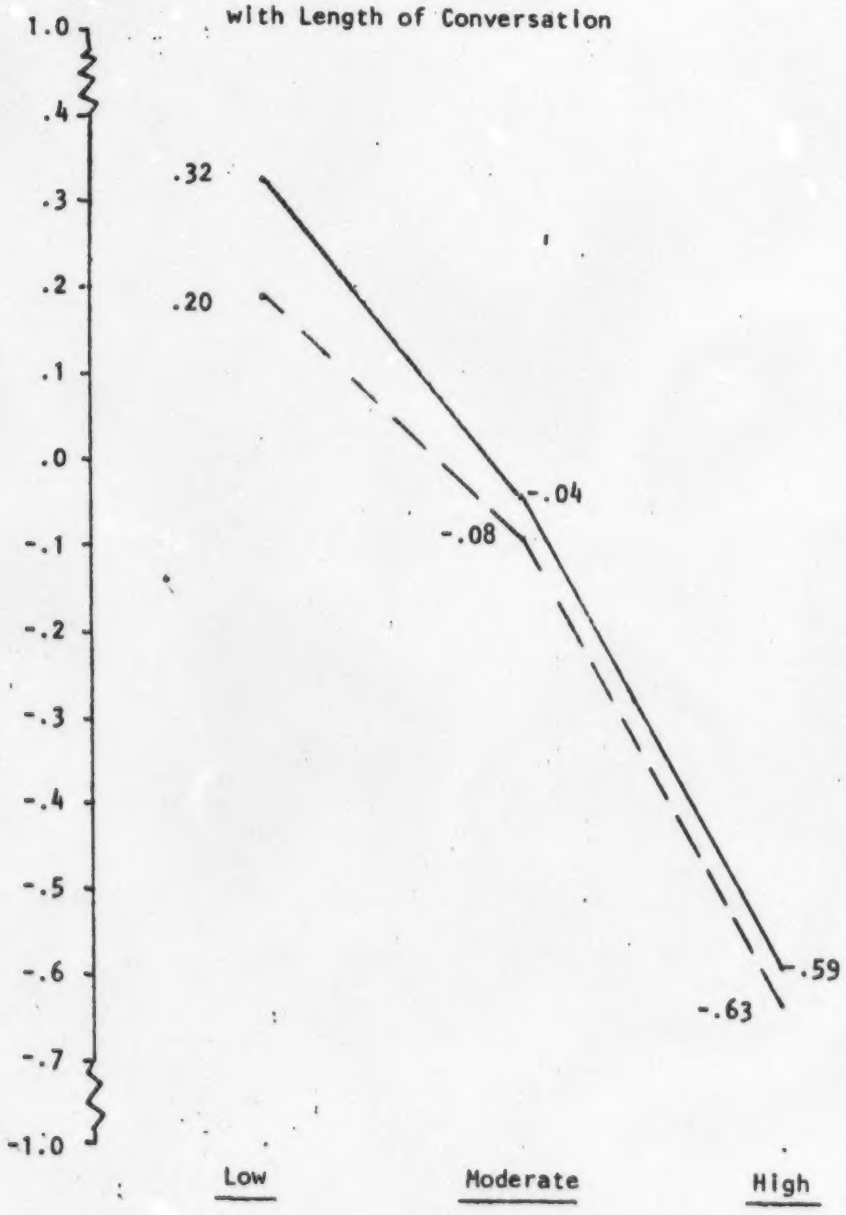


FIGURE 2

Correlation of Coder Agreement Scores

with Length of Conversation



Spearman's rho = -.83, p <